

DERIVED SOLUTIONS OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS.  
(Short Methods).

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When  $F(m)=0$  has  $n$  roots equal  $a$ , then  $F(m)=0$  and its first  $n-1$  derivatives have this root in common. So if  $F(m, x)$  is a solution of a differential equation, for different values of  $m$ , then, if  $n$  values of  $m$  are equal to  $a$ , are also the first  $n-1$  partial derivatives of  $F(m, x)$  with respect to  $m$  also, generally, solutions, when, after differentiation,  $m$  is changed to  $a$ .

CASE I.

(a) Linear differential equations with constant coefficients, second member zero.

$$y=e^{mx}$$

is the solution.

If  $(D-a)^n$  is a factor of the first member, using the symbolic method of solution, then

$$e^{mx}, xe^{mx}, x^2e^{mx} \dots\dots\dots, x^{n-1}e^{mx},$$

are all solutions, when  $m$  is changed to  $a$ , these being the partial derivatives with respect to  $m$ . Multiply each of these by an arbitrary constant and add for the general solution corresponding to  $(D-a)^n$ .

(b) When  $D^2+a^2$  is a factor of the first member,

$$y=\sin mx, y=\cos mx$$

are solutions, when  $m$  is  $a$ .

When  $(D^2+a^2)^n$  is a factor of the first member,

$$\begin{aligned} &\sin ax, x \sin (\pi/2+ax), x^2\sin (2\pi/2+ax), \dots\dots\dots \\ &x^{n-1} \sin ( (n-1) \pi/2+ax), \\ &\cos ax, x \cos (\pi/2+ax, x^2\cos (2\pi/2+ax), \dots\dots\dots \\ &x^{n-1} \cos ( (n-1) \pi/2+ax) \end{aligned}$$

are solutions.

(c) When  $(D-a)^2+b^2$  is a factor of the first member,

$$y=e^{mx}$$

is a solution, when  $m$  is changed to  $a+bi$  and  $a-bi$ , giving,

$$y=e^{ax} \cos bx \text{ and } y=e^{ax} \sin bx$$

as solutions, after addition and subtraction.

When  $((D-a)^2+b^2)^n$  is a factor of the first member, the  $(n-1)$  partial derivatives of  $e^{mx}$  with respect to  $m$ ,

$$xe^{mx}, x^2e^{mx}, \dots, x^{n-1}e^{mx},$$

are also solutions, when  $m$  is  $a+bi$ , or  $a-bi$ , giving also as solutions,

$$\begin{aligned} &xe^{ax}\sin bx, xe^{ax}\cos bx, x^2e^{ax}\sin bx, \\ &x^2e^{ax}\cos bx, \dots, x^{n-1}e^{ax}\sin bx, \\ &x^{n-1}e^{ax}\cos bx. \end{aligned}$$

Multiply each by an arbitrary constant and add.

### CASE II.

For the homogeneous linear differential equation of the form,

$$x^n \frac{d^ny}{dx^n} + x^{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0.$$

$$y = x^m$$

gives  $x^n F(m) = 0$ , and if  $m-a$  is a factor of  $F(m)$ , a solution is

$$y = x^a$$

The partial derivatives of  $x^m$ , with respect to  $m$ , are

$$x^m \log_e x; x^m \log^2_e x; x^m \log^3_e x, \text{ etc.}$$

Thus if  $(m-a)^n$  is a factor of  $F(m)$ , the solutions are,

$$\begin{aligned} &y = x^a, y = x^a \log_e x, y = x^a (\log_e x)^2, \dots \\ &y = x^a (\log_e x)^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Multiply each by an arbitrary constant and add.

### CASE III.

(a) In (a) of Case I, if the second member is  $e^{mx}$  (instead of zero) *the particular solution is*

$$y = \frac{e^{mx}}{D-a} = \frac{e^{mx}}{m-a}$$

for the equation  $(D-a)y = e^{mx}$ .

This fails when  $m=a$ .

All failing cases of this sort will give a solution when treated like the form  $\frac{0}{0}$  in calculus (differentiating as many times as the factor occurs, *omitting differentiation as to factors giving no trouble*, just as in the calculus problem).

$$(1) \quad y = \frac{e^{mx}}{m-a} = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial m}(e^{mx})}{\frac{\partial}{\partial m}(m-a)} = xe^{mx} = xe^{ax}$$

$$(2) \quad y = \frac{e^{mx}}{(m-a)^2} = \frac{xe^{mx}}{2(m-a)} = \frac{x^2e^{mx}}{2} = \frac{x^2e^{ax}}{2}$$

$$(3) \quad y = \frac{e^{mx}}{(m-a)^n} = \frac{x^n e^{ax}}{n}$$

$$(4) \quad y = \frac{e^{mx}}{(m^2+5m+3)(m-2)^2}, \text{ when } m=2$$

$$= \frac{xe^{mx}}{(17)2(m-2)} = \frac{x^2e^{mx}}{(17)(2)} = \frac{x^2e^{2x}}{34}$$

(b) For  $(D^2+a^2)y = \sin(mx)$

$$(1) \quad y = \frac{\sin(mx)}{D^2+a^2} = \frac{\sin(mx)}{-m^2+a^2}$$

This fails when  $m=a$ , but

$$(1) \quad y = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial m}(\sin(mx))}{\frac{\partial}{\partial m}(-m^2+a^2)} = \frac{x \cos(mx)}{-2m} = \frac{x \cos(ax)}{-2a}$$

$$(2) \quad y = \frac{\cos(mx)}{D^2+a^2} = \frac{\cos(mx)}{a^2-m^2} = \frac{x \sin(mx)}{2m} = \frac{x \sin(ax)}{2a},$$

when  $m=a$ .

$$(3) \quad y = \frac{\sin mx}{(D^2+9)(D^2+4)} = \frac{\sin mx}{(9-m^2)(4-m^2)}$$

For  $m=2$ ,

$$y = \frac{x \cos mx}{5(-2m)} = \frac{-x \cos 2x}{20}$$

For  $m=3$ ,

$$y = \frac{x \cos mx}{(-2m)(-5)} = \frac{x \cos 3x}{30}$$

$$(4) \quad y = \frac{\sin mx}{(D^2+4)^2}, \text{ when } m=2$$

$$= \frac{\sin mx}{(4-m^2)^2} = \frac{x \cos mx}{(-4m)(4-m^2)} = \frac{-x^2 \sin mx}{(-4m)(-2m)}$$

$$= \frac{-x^2 \sin 2x}{32}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (5) \quad y &= \frac{\sin mx}{(D^2+4)^3}, \text{ when } m=2 \\
 &= \frac{\sin mx}{(4-m^2)^3} = \frac{x \cos mx}{3(-2m)(4-m^2)^2} = \frac{-x^2 \sin mx}{3(-2m)^2(4-m^2)} \\
 &= \frac{-x^3 \cos mx}{3(-2m)^3} = \frac{x^3 \cos 2x}{3(4)^3}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (6) \quad y &= \frac{\sin mx}{(D^2+a^2)^n}, \text{ when } m=a \\
 &= \frac{x^n \sin \left(n \frac{\pi}{2} + mx\right)}{n 2^n (-m)^n} = \frac{x^n \sin \left(n \frac{\pi}{2} + ax\right)}{n 2^n (-a)^n}
 \end{aligned}$$

Similar treatment when the second member is the cosine.

#### CASE IV.

Linear differential equations, constant coefficients, second member a constant.

This is a particular case of (a) Case III.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 5 \frac{dy}{dx} + 6y &= 4 = 4e^{0x} \\
 \therefore y &= \frac{4e^{0x}}{D^2-5D+6} = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3},
 \end{aligned}$$

when  $D=0$ , is the particular solution.

#### CASE V.

Failing case of Case IV.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 5 \frac{dy}{dx} &= 4 = 4e^{0x} \\
 y &= \frac{4e^{mx}}{m^2-5m}
 \end{aligned}$$

is the solution when  $m=0$ .

$$\therefore \text{As in Case III, } y = \frac{4xe^{mx}}{2m-5}, \text{ when } m=0$$

$$\text{or, } y = -\frac{4x}{5},$$

is the *particular solution*.

CASE VI.

The non homogeneous linear differential equation.

The solution is usually two or more series gotten from.

$y = x^m (A_0 + A_1 x^{n_1} + A_2 x^{n_2} + A_3 x^{n_3} + \text{etc.})$ , (S), (where  $A_1, A_2, A_3$ , etc., are functions of  $m$ , and each of all the preceding by giving  $m$  particular values gotten by substituting  $x^m$  for  $y$  in the given equation.

Calling (S),  $y = F (m, x)$ , then, in case of two equal roots in  $m$ , is

$$y = \frac{\partial}{\partial m} F (m, x).$$

a solution, if, after differentiation,  $m$  is given the value of this root. And in case of three equal roots, is also

$$y = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial m^2} F (m, x)$$

a solution, and so on.

Suppose  $k$  is a particular value of  $m$ , and that  $x^m, A_1, A_2$ , etc., are all expressed in powers of  $m - k$ :

$$x^m = x^k (1 + (m - k) \log_e x + \frac{(m - k)^2}{2} \log_e^2 x + \text{etc.})$$

$$A_0 = A_0 (1 + \text{Zero } (m - k) + \text{Zero } (m - k)^2 + \text{etc.})$$

$$A_1 = A_0 (a_1 + b_1 (m - k) + c_1 (m - k)^2 + \text{etc.})$$

$$A_2 = A_0 (a_2 + b_2 (m - k) + c_2 (m - k)^2 + \text{etc.}),$$

and so on.

Substitute these values for the  $A$ 's in S and calling  $1 + a_1 x^{n_1} + a_2 x^{n_2} + \text{etc.}$ , the  $A$ -series; the coefficient of  $m - k$ , the  $B$ -series; that of  $(m - k)^2$ , the  $C$ -series, etc., (S) becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} y &= A_0 x^k (1 + (m - k) \log_e x + \text{etc.}) \text{ times} \\ &\quad (A\text{-series} + (m - k) (B\text{-series}) + (m - k)^2 (C\text{-series}) \\ &\quad + \text{etc.}) = A_0 x^k (A\text{-series}) \\ &\quad + A_0 x^k ( (A\text{-series}) \log_e x + B\text{-series} ) (m - k) \\ &\quad + A_0 x^k ( \frac{(A\text{-series})}{2} \log_e^2 x + (B\text{-series}) \log_e x \\ &\quad + C\text{-series} ) (m - k)^2 + \text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

In case  $m$  has the value  $k$  only once,

$$y = A_0 x^k A\text{-series} \tag{1}$$

is the solution.

If  $m$  has the value of  $k$  twice,

$$y = B_0 x^k ( (A\text{-series}) \log_e x + B\text{-series} ) \tag{2}$$

is also a solution. This is

$$y = \frac{\partial}{\partial m} F (m, x)$$

when  $m = k$ .

And thus is

$y = x^k (A_0 + B_0 \log_e x)$  A-series  $+ B_0 x^k$  (B-series)  
a solution.

And in case  $m$  has the value  $k$  three times, then in addition to the solutions (1), (2), is also

$$y = C_0 x^k \frac{(A\text{-series})}{2} \log_e^2 x + (B\text{-series}) \log_e x + (C\text{-series})$$

a solution. This is

$$y = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial m^2} F(m, x) \text{ when } m = k$$

And thus is

$$\begin{aligned} y = & x^k (A_0 + B_0 \log_e x + \frac{C_0}{2} \log_e^2 x) \text{ (A-series)} \\ & + x^k (B_0 + C_0 \log_e x) \text{ (B-series)} \\ & + x^k \text{ (C-series)} \end{aligned}$$

a solution. And so on.

It is quite easy, in any particular case, to obtain the B-series, C-series, etc., from the A-series, far easier than by the method usual in the texts (compare the following with Johnson, p. 181 to 194).

### Illustrations.

(a) Series starting with  $x^0$ .

$$x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

$$y = x^m, \text{ gives } m^2 x^{m-1} + x^m = 0 \quad (1)$$

We may assume an ascending series, starting with  $x^0$ , consecutive powers differing by unity.

$$\text{If we assume } y = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} A_r x^{m+r},$$

then by (1)

$$\begin{aligned} (m+r)^2 A_r + A_{r-1} &= 0 \\ \therefore A_r &= -A_{r-1} \frac{1}{(m+r)^2} \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{For } m=0, A_r = -A_{r-1} \cdot \frac{1}{r^2} \quad (3);$$

(3) gives the A-series,

$$y = 1 - \frac{x}{1^2} + \frac{x^2}{1^2 \cdot 2^2} - \frac{x^3}{1^2 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2} + \text{etc.}$$

If we differentiate the m-factor,  $-\frac{1}{(m+r)^2}$ , occurring in (2), we have

$$\left(\frac{1}{(m+r)^2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{2}{m+r}\right)$$

And for  $m=0$ , this is

$$\left(-\frac{1}{r^2}\right) \left(-\frac{2}{r}\right)$$

And the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the B-series comes at once from the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  term of the A-series (beginning with the 2d term of the A-series) by multiplying by

$$\sum_1^n \left(-\frac{2}{r}\right)$$

So that the B-series is

$$2\frac{x}{1^2} - 3\frac{x^2}{1^2 \cdot 2^2} + \frac{11}{3} \cdot \frac{x^3}{1^2 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2} - \frac{25}{6} \cdot \frac{x^4}{1^2 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 4^2} + \text{etc.}$$

As this method of getting the B-series from the A-series gives the relation of corresponding terms, it makes the settlement of the question of the convergency of the B-series much easier than Johnson's method. Into the question of convergency I am not entering here, but merely showing how to get the B-series, whether or not it is a usable solution.

The reason for the above procedure is this: The A's come each from the preceding by multiplication:

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= A_0(1+g_1(m-k) + \text{etc.}) \\ A_2 &= A_1(1+g_2(m-k) + \text{etc.}) \\ &= A_0(1+(g_1+g_2)(m-k) + \text{etc.}) \\ A_3 &= A_2(1+g_3(m-k) + \text{etc.}) \\ &= A_0(1+(g_1+g_2+g_3)(m-k) + \text{etc.}) \end{aligned}$$

and so on.

The coefficient of  $m-k$  in  $A_n$  is  $\sum_1^n g_n$ .

And since, in the expansion, the coefficients of  $m-k$  are values of  $F'(m)$ , the B-series comes from the A-series by the relation  $\sum_1^n F'(m)$  using the m factor of  $A_{r-1}$ , as in the foregoing example.

$$(2) \quad x(1-x^2) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + (1-3x^2) \frac{dy}{dx} - xy = 0 \text{ (Johnson-181)}$$

$$y = x^m \text{ gives } m^2x^{m-1} - (m+1)^2 x^{m+1} = 0 \text{ (E)}$$

And we may thus assume an ascending series beginning with  $m=0$ , or a descending series beginning with  $m = -1$ , exponents differing by 2 in each case.

(1) The ascending series,

$$y = \sum_0^{\infty} A_r x^{m+2r}$$

gives, by (E),

$$(m+2r)^2 A_r - (m+2r-1)^2 A_{r-1} = 0$$

$$\therefore A_r = \frac{(m+2r-1)^2}{(m+2r)^2} \cdot A_{r-1} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{For } m=0, A_r = \frac{(2r-1)^2}{(2r)^2} A_{r-1} \quad (3);$$

(3) gives the A-series.

Differentiating the  $m$ -factor of (2) we have

$$\left( \frac{(m+2r-1)^2}{(m+2r)^2} \right) \left( \frac{2}{(m+2r)(m+2r-1)} \right)$$

And for  $m=0$ , this is

$$\left( \frac{(2r-1)^2}{(2r)^2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{r(2r-1)} \right)$$

And thus the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the B-series is derivable from the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  term of the A-series, beginning with the 2d, by multiplying by

$$\sum_{r=1}^{r=n} \frac{1}{r(2r-1)} \quad (4)$$

By (3) the A-series is

$$y = 1 + \frac{1^2}{2^2} x^2 + \frac{1^2 \cdot 3^2}{2^2 \cdot 4^2} x^4 + \frac{1^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^2}{2^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 6^2} x^6 + \text{etc.}$$

And by (4) the B-series is

$$\frac{1^2}{2} x^2 + \frac{7}{6} \frac{1^2 \cdot 3^2}{2^2 \cdot 4^2} x^4 + \frac{37}{30} \frac{1^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^2}{2^2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 6^2} x^6 + \text{etc.}$$

(2) The descending series for the same equation.

$$(m+1)^2 x^{m+1} - m^2 x^{m-1} = 0, \text{ gives,}$$

$$(m-2r+1)^2 x^{m-2r} A_r - (m-2r+2) x^{m-2r-1} A_{r-1} = 0$$

$$\therefore A_r = \frac{(m-2r+2)^2}{(m-2r+1)^2} A_{r-1} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{For } m = -1, \quad A_r = \frac{(2r-1)^2}{(2r)} A_{r-1} \quad (2)$$

This gives the A-series.



Differentiating the m-factor of (1)

$$\left( \left( \frac{m-2r+2}{m-2r+1} \right)^2 \right) \left( \frac{-2}{(m-2r+1)(m-2r+2)} \right)$$

For  $m = -1$ , this is

$$\left( \left( \frac{2r-1}{2r} \right)^2 \right) \left( -\frac{2}{2r(2r-1)} \right)$$

And thus the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the B-series is derived from the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  term of the A-series, beginning with the 2d, by multiplying by

$$\sum_1^n \frac{-2}{(2r-1)(2r)}$$

The A-series is

$$x^{-1} \left( 1 + \frac{1^2}{2^2} x^{-2} + \frac{1^2 \cdot 3^3}{2^2 \cdot 4^2} x^{-4} + \text{etc.} \right)$$

And the B-series is

$$-2x^{-1} \left( \frac{1^2}{2^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} x^{-2} + \frac{1^2 \cdot 3^3}{2^2 \cdot 4^2} \left( \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} \right) x^{-4} + \text{etc.} \right)$$

(b) Series starting with the same value of  $m$ , but not zero.

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 3x \frac{dy}{dx} + (4-x)y = 0$$

$$y = x^m \text{ gives } (m-2)^2 x^m - x^{m+1} = 0.$$

$\therefore$  Two ascending series, starting with  $x^2$ ,

$$A_r = \frac{A_{r-1}}{(m+r-2)^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{For } m=2, A_r =, A_{r-1} \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \right) \quad (2);$$

(2) gives the A-series.

Differentiating the m-factor of (1),

$$\left( \frac{1}{(m+r-2)^2} \right) \left( \frac{-2}{m+r-2} \right)$$

For  $m=2$ , this is

$$\left( \frac{1}{r^2} \right) \left( -\frac{2}{r} \right)$$

The  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the B-series is derivable from the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  term of the A-series by multiplying by

$$\sum_1^n \left( -\frac{2}{r} \right)$$

The A-series is

$$x^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1^2} x + \frac{1}{1^2 \cdot 2^2} x^2 + \frac{1}{1^2 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2} x^3 + \text{etc.} \right)$$

And the B-series is

$$-2x^2 \left( \frac{x}{1^2} + \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1^2 \cdot 2^2} x^2 + \frac{11}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{1^2 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 3^2} x^3 + \text{etc.} \right)$$

Note—Equations of the sort that give two or more solutions starting with a value of  $m$  different from zero, can be reduced to the latter sort in two ways. First, by a change of the dependent variable. If the starting value is  $x^k$ , set  $y = x^k y$ . The equation just considered, if we set  $y = x^2 y$ , becomes

$$x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0,$$

and  $x^m = y$ , gives  $m^2 x^{m-1} - x^m = 0$

$$\therefore A_r = \frac{1}{(m+r)^2} \cdot A_{r-1}$$

$$\text{For } m=0, A_r = A_{r-1} \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \right)$$

This gives the A-series.

Differentiating the  $m$ -factor,

$$\left( \frac{1}{(m+r)^2} \right) \left( \frac{-2}{m+r} \right)$$

becomes, for  $m=0$ ,

$$\left( \frac{1}{r^2} \right) \left( \frac{-2}{r} \right)$$

The B-series is derivable from the A-series by

$$\sum_1^n \left( \frac{-2}{r} \right)$$

The resulting two series multiplied by  $x^2$ , give the required A-series and B-series.

Or, we might change  $m-k$  to  $n$ , and deduce the series in terms of  $n$  as heretofore in terms of  $m$ . Thus case (b) is always reducible to case (a).

(c) Series starting with values of  $m$  differing by a multiple of  $s$  when

$$y = \sum_0^\infty A_r x^{m+rs}$$

is the assumed solution.

(Compare Johnson, p. 185-9).

$$x^2 (1+x) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} + (1-2x) y = 0$$

(Compare Johnson, p. 185).

$$y = x^m, \text{ gives} \\ (m+1) (m-2) x^{m+1} + (m^2+1) x^m = 0 \quad (1)$$

And we may select two descending series, beginning with  $x^{-1}$  and  $x^2$ , with powers differing by unity.

By (1),  $y = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} A_r x^{m-r}$  gives

$$(m-r) (m-r-3) A_{r+1} + ((m-r)^2+1) A_r = 0 \\ \therefore A_{r+1} = - \frac{(m-r)^2+1}{(m-r) (m-r-3)} A_r \quad (2)$$

For  $m=2$ , this gives,

$$A_{r+1} = \frac{(2-r)^2+1}{(2-r) (r+1)} A_r$$

And this will fail when  $r=2$

For  $m=-1$ , (2) gives

$$A_{r+1} = - \frac{(r+1)^2+1}{(r+1) (r+4)} A_r \quad (3)$$

This gives the A-series, from which, by the method already used, we can also get the B-series.

Differentiating the m-factor of (2)

$$\left( - \frac{(m-r)^2+1}{(m-r) (m-r-3)} \right) \left( - \frac{3(m-r)^2+2(m-r)-3}{(m-r) (m-r-3) ((m-r)^2+1)} \right)$$

When  $m=-1$ , this becomes

$$\left( - \frac{(1+r)^2+1}{(r+1) (r+4)} \right) \left( - \frac{3r^2+4r-2}{(r+1) (r+4) (r^2+2r+2)} \right)$$

Thus the terms of the B-series (except as to those preceding the A-series) are gotten, the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the B-series from the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  term of the A-series by multiplying by

$$- \sum_0^n \frac{3r^2+4r-2}{(r+1) (r+4) (r^2+2r+2)}$$

The A-series is

$$x^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{2}{1.4} x^{-1} + \frac{2}{1.4} \cdot \frac{5}{2.5} \cdot x^{-1} + \text{etc.} \right)$$

And the B-series is

$$x^{-1}(-\frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{1.4} x^{-1} + \frac{3}{20} \cdot \frac{2}{1.4} \cdot \frac{5}{2.5} x^{-2} - \text{etc.})$$

To get the terms of the B-series preceding the A-series,

$$A_r = -\frac{(m-r)(m-r-3)}{(m-r)^2+1} A_{r+1}, \text{ by (2)}$$

Differentiating

$$A_r = -\frac{(m-r)(m-r-3)}{(m-r)^2+1} A_{r+1} \cdot \left( \frac{3(m-r)^2+2(m-r)-3}{(m-r)(m-r-3)((m-r)^2+1)} \right)$$

And when  $m = -1$ , this is

$$A_r = -\frac{(1+r)(4+r)}{r^2+2r+2} \cdot A_{r+1} \left( \frac{3r^2+4r-2}{(1+r)(4+r)(r^2+2r+2)} \right)$$

$$\therefore A_r = A_{r+1} \left\{ -\frac{(1+r)(4+r)}{r^2+2r+2} - \frac{3r^2+4r-2}{(r^2+2r+2)^2} (m+1) + \text{etc.} \right\}$$

$$\therefore A_{-1} = A_0 (0+3(m+1))$$

$$A_{-2} = A_{-1} (1+k_1(m+1) + \text{etc.})$$

$$= A_0 (0+3(m+1) + \text{etc.})$$

$$A_{-3} = A_{-2} \left( \frac{2}{5} + k_2(m+1) + \text{etc.} \right)$$

$$= A_0 \left( 0 + \frac{6}{5} (m+1) + \text{etc.} \right)$$

$$A_{-4} = A_{-3} (0+k_3(m+1) + \text{etc.})$$

$$= A_0 (0+0(m+1));$$

and all subsequent terms vanish as to  $m+1$ .

$\therefore$  terms to be added are

$$B_0 \left( 3+3x + \frac{6}{5} x^2 \right)$$

Vanishing of the first term in  $A_{-1}$  prevents using the procedure used heretofore, since in this case a summation no longer holds.

$$(2) \quad 4x(1-x) \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4 \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0$$

$y = x^m$  gives

$$4m(m-2)x^{m-1} - (2m-1)^2 x^m = 0$$

$\therefore$  series start with  $x^0$  and  $x^2$ ; exponents of powers differ by unity.

$$A_r = \frac{(2(m+r)-3)^2}{4(m+r)(m+r-2)} A_{r-1} \quad (1)$$

For  $m=0$ , the series would fail for  $r=2$ .

For  $m=2$

$$A_r = \frac{(2r+1)^2}{2r \cdot 2(r+1)} A_{r-1} \quad (2)$$

This gives the A-series.

Differentiating (1)

$$A_r = \frac{(2(m+r)-3)^2}{4(m+r)(m+r-2)} A_{r-1} \frac{2(m-r)-6}{(m+r)(m+r-2)(2(m+r)-3)}$$

And when  $m=2$ , this is

$$A_r = \frac{(2r-1)^2}{2r \cdot 2(r+2)} A_{r-1} \cdot \frac{2(r-1)}{r(r+2)(2r+1)}$$

The B-series derivable from the A-series is gotten thus:

The  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the B-series from the  $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$  term of the A-series by multiplying by

$$\sum_1^n \frac{2(r-1)}{r(r+2)(2r+1)}$$

And the terms of the B-series preceding the A-series come from

$$A_{r-1} = A_r \left( \frac{2r \cdot 2(r+2)}{(2r+1)} - \frac{8(r+1)}{(2r+1)^3} (m-2) \right)$$

$$\therefore A_{-1} = A_0 (0 + 8(m-2))$$

$$A_{-2} = A_{-1} (-4 - 16(m-2))$$

$$= A_0 (0 - 32(m-2))$$

$$A_{-3} = A_{-2} (0 + k(m-2))$$

$$= A_0 (0 + 0(m-2))$$

$\therefore$  the terms are

$$B_0 (-32 + 8x)$$